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ABSTRACT

A study tested the validity of two active TV viewing constructs that predicted the effects of content and degree of active viewing on a television viewer's perception of a mean world. Random digit dialing produced interviews with 163 subjects who were asked separate questions about their prime time and daytime viewing to determine their level of attention and their outlook on the world. Results indicated the best model for daytime viewers, but also provided a good model for evening viewing by persons who watch only evening TV and for those who watch TV at both times of the day. Although the prediction that more active viewers of prime time TV would be less likely to be cultivated by that time's content was supported, this model did not hold for persons who also watch daytime TV, perhaps because of the small size of the sample or because the mix of contents mitigates the effects of prime time TV's greater amounts of violence. World view may also be the cause, not the effect, of certain viewing habits. Public affairs TV viewing also affected viewer outlook strongly. Finally, these results suggest that a finer delineation of TV viewing types might prove useful to future research. (JL)

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THEORY AND METHODOLOGY

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN
ACTIVE VIEWING OF DIFFERENT TELEVISION
CONTENT TYPES AND INDIVIDUAL PERCEPTION
OF A MEAN WORLD

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Active television viewing as a communication construct has not been studied a great deal within the situational context of people watching television. Part of this construct, individual cognitive processing of TV's messages while in the viewing situation, has become a current concern in the literature.

An overview of television research during the past 10 years, sponsored by the U.S. National Institute of Mental Health (1982), concludes that studies on cognitive processing--perception, recall and comprehension--are sparse and have been conducted relatively recently, with an almost exclusive focus on the child viewer. And this research on TV viewing processes of children has principally examined differences in various cognitive activities across developmental levels (see Anderson, Alwitt, Lorch and Levin, 1979; Wartella, 1979).

Active viewing by adults, presumed to have relatively comparable cognitive abilities, is the construct under investigation by this author. Active viewing, generally defined here as situational cognitive and affective orientations to specific TV message content, will be explored as a viable theoretical construct and will be studied within a media effects framework, although an attempt is made to take a more situational perspective. Before addressing the construct of active TV viewing in particular, a brief review of the research on TV viewing behavior is necessary.

Two primary approaches in the mass communication literature stand out in the study of television behavior, direct effects and uses and gratifications. A good example of direct effects research is perhaps from the George Gerbner group at the University of Pennsylvania (e.g., Gerbner, Gross, Morgan and Signorielli, 1980). This group emphasizes the attributes of TV messages and postulates a causal link between TV content and learned perceptions by individual viewers, perceptions of a distorted social reality that resembles the world of TV if the viewer is a heavy user. The Gerbner group assumes that

television at the social system's level is like a global priesthood and that individuals view in a non-selective, habitual, ritualistic manner. TV viewing behavior is operationalized as amount of total television exposure, and, although the findings are often small, some evidence demonstrates that the more people view television, the more a "cultivation" of distorted perceptions occurs (Hawkins and Pingree, 1981a).

In the uses and gratifications approach, less attention has been given to the message content of television, the amount of total TV viewing and the presumed effects of such exposure, and more emphasis has been placed on psychological aspects of members of the viewing audience. Most of the research in this area has been descriptive, detailing audience members' perceptions of the gratifications they seek from various media. Although content analysis generally does not accompany this approach, as it has with the Gerbner group's, findings show that different content may have different uses for people, according to how individuals describe their perceived viewing needs and expectations (Katz, Blumler and Gurevitch, 1974). Although the focus of uses and gratifications perspectives has been on individual uses, the research has stopped short of investigating actual media use. Instead, these researchers tend to employ self-reported measures of what viewers seek in television viewing situations, assuming that TV viewing is generally goal-directed and rational behavior.

However, one can argue that both research traditions have suffered from applying personality trait assumptions to TV viewing behavior, whether the research is behaviorist, as with Gerbner et al., or a more audience-centered, cognitive approach like uses and gratifications. The regularity and consistency with which people behave in television viewing may have been misconstrued in communication research, associating consistency in media use behavior with consistency in people's personalities. Using personality-like

variables in research to represent people's media use brings with it problems about the nature of communication behavior. Research findings in communication show that persons are not necessarily consistent across various social situations with regard to traits and behavior (Hewes and Haight, 1979), and a recent emphasis in the social psychological literature is on the interaction of persons and situations in explaining human behavior.

Because TV exposure is so widely used, and is used as a trait concept in survey research, heavy viewers are treated in much of the literature as TV addicts (Feshbach and Singer, 1971; Gerbner et al., 1980). Although one group of gratifications researchers views media use as a person-by-situation interaction (Blumler, Brown and McQuail, 1971), this theoretical approach has never been seriously taken. McLeod and Becker (1974) have criticized the general treatment of gratificational motives as traits, when theoretically they should be viewed as cognitive constructs that are more situationally specific.

A conditional approach to traditional direct effects research is one way that more situational contingencies have been taken into account. As Hawkins and Pingree (1981a) note, in a review of cultivation research, the evidence supports a more conditional approach to the effects question, recognizing that under certain conditions and in specific TV viewing contexts, viewing may be different; therefore, the effects would differ. Hawkins and Pingree call for more research emphases on audience member processes that are related to how people use TV messages, whether they select and attend to those messages and in what manner, as important variables in a causal link between TV and its effects. This could be accomplished in a person-by-situation interactionist approach, where specific interactions between the individual and the psychological situations encountered are assumed to be important. Studying the TV experience in its context is necessary for an interactionist approach. Researchers who have conceptualized television viewing thusly regard the

behavior of deciding about content and cognitive attention as important variables, often confounding the two. Levy (1978) differentiated between "active" and "passive" audience members, indicating that "active" individuals choose the messages to which they expose themselves, their decisions are motivated by goals which are self-defined, and the "active" participation in the communication act limits the effects of the media. Jeffres (1975) used a typology of "media seeking" and "content seeking" categories: watching TV to pass the time and watching TV to get certain information from a specific show or content type. His typology assumed that individuals who got into the TV viewing situation had definite goals that directed them to content, an assumption that is intrinsic to the uses and gratifications perspective.

Within uses and gratifications, researchers have focused on personal attributes, or psychological states, to the exclusion of perhaps more important situational contingencies. Blumler (1978) has argued that this perspective should shift to a focus on whether the audience is active or not, as persons behave differently across various media use situations. He suggests that certain types of media content may involve different kinds of activity than other types.

Taking Blumler's suggestions to concentrate on viewer activity, this paper will not consider antecedents to viewing behavior such as psychological needs and goals. Rather, within an effects framework, a situational test of TV use relative to two different viewing contexts will be made, with active viewing as a principal independent variable, presumed to influence individual perceptions of social reality.

Blumler (1978) recommends that an index of media activity can be constructed by measuring individuals' degree of attention paid to certain content stimuli, and by measuring subsequent or recurring activity relative to

specific types of media use situations where the content encountered may be used, such as talking about it with others. Another way of conceptualizing active TV viewing might be to determine the level of affect for television characters--how much viewers indicate they care about various characters.

Whether these indicators might represent active viewing is a question addressed in the construct validation section of this study. Why these indicators might represent activity on the part of TV viewers is based on general, more intuitive arguments about what people do with television. Two conceptualizations of cognitive activity, attention, seem to exist in the communication literature: acute attention while in a media use situation, involving the immediate perception and cognitive focusing of media stimuli, followed by information processing; and a less time-specific type of attention, such as regularly selecting, possibly preferring, and therefore being exposed to certain types of media content, as with "attending" to public affairs events on a regular basis. Parallel affective components of active viewing may also be operating; as one attends cognitively, so does one process emotionally. It is believed affect and cognitions can influence one another and may have independent influences on information processing (Zajonc, 1980). Also, more enduring emotional involvement with specific characters, types of plot, sorts of sporting events, etc., may lead one to become more affectively oriented over time toward media messages.

Thus, both affective and cognitive activity can have time present (in the media use situation) and over-time (before, during and after the media use situation) components. Activity in time present can be conceptualized relative to focusing on what is encountered in time present on television, particular to specific media stimuli. At the actual time of viewing, this type of act occurs. One might cognitively focus on a TV character's hair style,

mode of dress, or on the setting of the story. At the actual time of viewing, this activity occurs. In different situations, an individual may pay less cognitive attention to the same types of media stimuli. It may be difficult to sort out whether the process is more cognitive or affective; that is not the concern here, although generally in the study or information processing attention to such types of stimuli would be regarded as cognitive. Activity over time may be a more observable behavior, indicated more easily than visual gaze to a television screen or auditory attention, which is even more difficult to measure. This type of more observable activity may be both affective and behavioral, such as talking about TV content, characters, plots, likes, dislikes, etc. Carrying around an enduring feeling toward some character one becomes emotionally attached to, whether liking or disliking the character, is also indicative of active viewing, as manifested outside of the actual viewing situation.

If viewers become "fans" of particular television content, or characters, it is likely they might be more active in TV viewing situations, paying more attention to various attributes of the characters or plot. Outside of the actual viewing environment or during commercials, various activity such as thinking about, feeling an involvement with, or talking about those characters or shows, may be highly likely to occur. Although no measure of specific shows' fans is used in this study, this might be a useful way to conceptualize activity in a highly affective sense. Active viewing in the cognitive domain that perhaps parallels the involvement level of the TV fan is with regard to a highly analytical, or critical, approach to viewing TV, where what is encountered in the viewing situation is questioned, challenged, or analyzed according to its validity, link to reality, etc. (Salomon and Cohen, 1979).

Examining people's use of television--their active viewing--in different contexts, daytime and evening, is a useful approach to make comparisons about varied viewing situations.

In this paper the indirect influence of two distinctly different types of TV content, evening prime time media fare and daytime serials, on viewer's perception of a mean world will be studied. Rather than testing whether heavy television viewing leads to cultivation of a mean world perception, as has been the case in cultivation research, we will examine whether TV viewing of certain content types interacts with active viewing to mediate the social reality effect of a heightened perception of a mean world.

Hawkins and Pingree (1981a) suggest that one way researchers can investigate differences in cultivation of distorted perceptions of reality is by studying their relationship to different content types. Hawkins and Pingree (1981b) have shown that the viewing of crime and adventure, cartoon, and game programs is related to two social reality beliefs, mean world and violence in society. In their study, individuals were checked to see how TV viewing of certain content types compared to their viewing of all content types--total viewing. Viewing more cartoon and game shows relative to the amount that would be predicted from individuals' total viewing measure was found to be associated with perceiving the world as a mean place and quite violent.

In this paper, dividing TV viewing into the frequency of viewing prime time shows and the frequency of viewing daytime serials is broad, but useful. Daytime serials and prime time shows differ in both form and content. Prime time TV is more fast-paced, and the content analysis research demonstrates that violence is a recurring major theme (Gerbner, Gross, Signorielli, Morgan and Jackson-Beeck, 1979). Daytime serials are characterized by a slower-paced, continuous plot (Cantor, 1979) and are considerably less violent. Most of the action in soap operas is talk (Katzman, 1977). The content of soap operas is found to center more on interpersonal conflict (Downing, 1974). Although soap operas concentrate on problems between persons and about human

values, they are more family-oriented, dealing with such themes as romance, marriage, and divorce. The concept perception of a mean world generally means being afraid to trust people and perhaps to go out alone at night in one's neighborhood, or believing that if most people get an opportunity to cheat you, they will. This represents a view of the world as mean, a general feeling of anxiety about becoming a victim in a mean and violent society. In daytime serials, it is not general anxiety about fearing for one's life or well-being that seems to dominate the messages, rather, worrying about losing the trust or companionship of friends and relatives. Because of the ubiquity of violent themes on prime time television, mean world perceptions are believed to be more likely fostered or reinforced from viewing of prime time content.

By initially investigating how actively individuals view prime time and daytime TV programs, testing the existence of the theoretical constructs of active TV viewing, we can then test the influence of active viewing, interacting with content type, on the social reality construct, perception of a mean world view.

I propose that two active viewing constructs, Cognitive Activity and Affective/Behavioral Activity, using several indicators that measure paying attention, caring, and talking about television shows, will emerge as theoretically valid (see Figure 1). Watching daytime serials, because of their content emphasis on interpersonal experiences, may be more active with regard to these indicators. An hypothesis for this paper, then, is that soap opera viewers watching serials will differ from evening viewers watching evening shows in that their viewing is more active. This means that soap opera viewers who also view evening TV will demonstrate more activity when they're in the soap opera viewing context, but the same amount of active viewing as those who only view prime time TV in the prime time viewing context. So the same persons who

watch both types of content will change in their active viewing depending on which type of content they are watching.

It is expected that the dependent variable, perception of a mean world, will also emerge as a valid theoretical construct, with reliable indicators. An estimation can be made of how much the active viewing construct, examined within categories of the frequency of viewing afternoon and evening programming, influences the perception of a mean world. Because prime time television has been found to be more violent than daytime serials, it is hypothesized that active viewing of prime time TV will mediate the perception of a mean world, as manifested in an inverse relationship. That is, the more actively an individual views prime time content, the less likely that person will demonstrate a perception of the world as mean, shared by less active viewers. Because of the lack of violence on daytime soap operas, and perhaps the lingering optimism that troubles will eventually (over a period of several shows) turn for the better, cultivation of a mean world is less relevant. But if it is demonstrated here, it will be among the less active viewers of soap operas. Soap opera fans, highly involved and active by definition, have been found to be less cultivated than other soap opera viewers (Pingree, Starrett and Hawkins, 1979).

Education and age of TV viewers can be entered into a structural model such as this as controls, because it is believed that the more educated and older persons will be less likely to view the world as mean. More experiences and learning are thought to inhibit this negative social reality belief.

METHODS

Telephone interviews were conducted with 163 respondents in the spring of 1981 in Dane County, Wisconsin, using the probability sampling technique of

random digit dialing. All television-related questions were asked separately for both prime time and daytime shows, beginning with the frequency of viewing each type. The independent construct of active viewing was measured using the following self-reported indicators, with Likert-type responses: level of attention paid to the personal qualities of the characters, the characters' appearance, values and morals displayed by characters, and the story line; how much viewers talked with men and with women about TV shows; and how much they cared about characters on TV. A self-report of age and education was obtained.

In addition, various cultivation questions used in past research in this area were obtained, including the mean world measures that were used in this study. The following indicators were used as representative of this construct, with the responses ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree on a five-point scale: "If they get the chance, most people will try to cheat you," "Mostly, people are just looking out for themselves," and "You can never be too careful in dealing with people."

Of the 163 persons interviewed, 147 watched prime time television and 83 also watched daytime serials. Only three persons in the sample viewed daytime serials only, and 13 reported they did not watch TV. The two largest groups were used for the analysis, and other than a larger amount of females in the group that viewed soap operas and evening TV, no striking demographic differences were characteristic of these two groups.

A useful method for exploring the hypotheses presented in this paper is the LISREL technique that can estimate the fit of both measurement and structural (causal) models simultaneously, using a maximum likelihood procedure. Within this program, one can analyze how well certain indicators represent an unmeasured theoretical construct and whether one or more dimensions of a construct exist. This can be accomplished concomitantly with the estimation

of the relationship of the theoretical constructs, using their indicators, to other constructs. This technique also can simultaneously run measurement and structural models for two or more groups, generally subgroups of a sample, to show similarities or differences. In addition, this technique can account for measurement error in the model, as estimations of error terms on the indicators are included in the analysis, as well as estimations of the error residuals on the unmeasured theoretical constructs. It is useful to run measurement models separately when exploring new conceptual domains before entering the measurement model that best fits into the complete structural model; therefore, we first examined how well the indicators of the two active TV viewing constructs (independent variables) represented that construct. This was done for the entire sample on viewing of evening TV, separately for people who view only evening TV and for those who view daytime and evening TV, and for the subsample of soap opera viewers on viewing daytime serials.

A goodness-of-fit statistic, distributed Chi-Square, is used in LISREL analysis to determine how reliable all the indicators in a measurement model represent the unmeasured theoretical construct. Because the maximum likelihood procedure seldom produces a Chi-Square statistic that is shown to be significant¹, a method for checking the fit of a model has been proposed (Wheaton, Muthen, Alwin and Summers, 1977). First, if the ratio of the Chi-Square statistic and its respective degrees of freedom is less than 5, the fit is presumed to be significantly good. Also a method of examining the relative reduction of the Chi-Square value in models can be employed to determine whether eliminating indicators that are not reliable and re-estimating leads to be better fit. A significant reduction in Chi-Square, relative to the reduction in the degrees of freedom, is indicative of a better-fitting model (Alwin and Jackson, 1980). This technique for determining a model's significance can also be used for structural model evaluation.

Using a congeneric true score factor analysis,² the best-fitting measurement model for the active viewing constructs included two clean dimensions (see Figure 2). A Cognitive Activity construct includes the indicators of paying attention to the personal qualities of the characters on TV shows, paying attention to morals and values as displayed by characters, paying attention to characters' appearance, and paying attention to the story line. A more Affective/Behavioral Activity construct that represents another dimension of actively viewing TV includes the indicators of talking with women and with men about TV shows, and caring about TV characters.

Three measurement models, run on different subgroups, proved to have significant goodness-of-fit statistics (see Figure 2 and Table 1). For the total sample used in this analysis that viewed evening television, a Chi-Square value of 67.3066, with 13 degrees of freedom (p .001) resulted. Here, the ratio of the Chi-Square and degrees of freedom is 5.16. When we divided the evening television viewing group into those who watched only prime time shows and those who also viewed soap operas, a similar fit resulted. For persons who only watch evening television, the Chi-Square statistic was 45.0656, with 13 degrees of freedom (p .001), and the ratio of the Chi-Square statistic and the degrees of freedom 3.47. For persons who watch both day and night TV, the Chi-Square statistic was 36.0615, with 13 degrees of freedom (p .006), and the ratio of the Chi-Square statistic and the degrees of freedom 2.77. Running the measurement model using the subgroup of persons who watch both daytime and nighttime TV on their active viewing of daytime serials, we found another significant fit, with a Chi-Square value of 30.1110, 13 degrees of freedom (p .006), and a Chi-Square and degrees of freedom ratio of 2.32.

As hypothesized, a comparison of the entire TV viewing sample measurement model with the two-groups (viewers of only prime time and viewers of both prime time and daytime serials) showed no significant difference in

Chi-Square values. This suggests that active viewing is similar for these two groups when in the evening viewing context. All lambda coefficients, representing the extent to which an indicator is a reliable measure that represents the underlying theoretical constructs, were significant, therefore all indicators were used in the structural model that was later tested.

The measurement model for the afternoon viewers, who also watch evening TV, on the viewing of afternoon shows demonstrated a significantly better fit than the other measurement models, suggesting these indicators of active TV viewing are more applicable to the daytime serial viewing context. One exception is the indicator of caring about TV characters, which did not prove to be significant.

The adequacy of the mean world indicators as representative of this underlying theoretical construct was also tested, although this was more of a confirmatory factor analysis. Here, a reliable goodness of-fit statistic also resulted, with a Chi-Square value of 218.2408, 51 degrees of freedom ($p .001$), and a Chi-Square-degree of freedom ratio of 4.28. This was run on the entire sample at once.

The complete structural model, including the above tested theoretical constructs, as represented by their associated indicators, that was then tested appears in Figure 3. (see Figure 3)³ Gammas represent the coefficient of association between the demographic variables of age and education and the dependent construct; betas represent the coefficient of association between the two active viewing constructs and the dependent construct, within the level of frequency of viewing the different contents. In order to test the interaction of the frequency of viewing television content with active viewing for the entire sample, with regard to evening viewing, and for the subgroups, three separate structural models were run, using the LISREL procedure. An analysis of the entire sample of TV viewers, using the above model, resulted in a Chi-Square goodness-of-fit statistic of 134.83, with 51 degrees of freedom and

a Chi-Square-degree of freedom ratio of 2.61 ($p .001$). (See Table 2 for goodness-of-fit statistics and Figure 4 for path coefficients in the structural model.) The only significant path in this model was from education to the perception of a mean world, an inverse relationship of $-.26$ ($p .001$). Testing this model on the two subgroups of those who view evening TV only and those who view both evening and daytime TV, which is done simultaneously, resulted in another goodness-of-fit statistic that is significant: Chi-Square of 153.09, with 109 degrees of freedom ($p .004$), and a Chi Square-degree of freedom ratio of 1.41. In this model, the association between the level of education and the perception of a mean world remained about the same, with a gamma coefficient of $-.47$ ($p .001$). But an additional significant relationship emerged, with a beta coefficient of $-.35$ ($p .001$) between cognitive attention and the perception of a mean world. This appeared only for evening viewers watching evening TV content. The people who view soap operas and evening TV did not demonstrate a significant relationship between cognitive activity and the perception of a mean world, although the nonsignificant betas were in the same direction as those for the evening viewers only.

Finally, the subgroup of persons who watch both daytime and evening TV shows was analyzed with regard to the interaction of soap opera viewing and the active viewing constructs, using again the same model. In this case a significant Chi-Square statistic, 74.21, with 51 degrees of freedom ($p .019$), and a Chi-Square-degree of freedom ratio of 1.46. This demonstrated a good fit for the model; however, no significant relationships among the variables appeared.

An examination of the residual variance that is left unaccounted for in the LISREL estimations suggests a great deal is left unexplained by all the models except the two-group estimation that found a significant relationship between Cognitive Activity and Perception of a Mean World ($-.35$, $p .001$). Therefore, clearly more variables account for individuals' perceptions of a

mean world than those included in this exploratory model, especially for afternoon and evening viewers.

CONCLUSIONS

The successful emergence of the two active viewing constructs, representing a conceptual domain of contextual processing of individuals regarding TV content is apparent here. And the better fitting model for the daytime serial viewers suggests that the active viewing measures are more reliable indicators of active viewing for those people in that context. This could be that attending to various aspects of TV plot and characters are all more relevant to soap opera viewers. But good fitting measurement models for evening viewing by persons who watch only evening TV and for those who watch TV at both times of the day suggest that the two active viewing constructs are also relevant in the evening viewing context. The similarity for the two subgroups, persons who watch only evening TV and persons who watch both evening and daytime TV, suggests that in the evening viewing context, active viewing is quite similar. That is, there is nothing apparent in this study that indicates a difference in the way two very different groups watch the same types of content.

However, the structural model reveals the more cognitive activity viewers exercise when watching prime time TV, the less likely they are to be cultivated by TV content presented at that time. It should be noted that although this finding did not hold up for persons who also watch daytime serials, the importance of the similar direction and near-significance of the coefficient is worthy of consideration in such an exploratory study. It could be that the sample size was too small to achieve significance on this relationship. It is also possible that people who watch soap operas get both types of TV content, very violent media fare and considerably less violent media fare; therefore, these individuals are not as affected by the presentation of a mean world

while watching prime time TV as their prime time only viewing counterparts. The prime time only viewers may come into a TV viewing situation with a greater view of the world as mean, due to their exposure only to evening content; active attention, at least cognitive activity, is thus shown to reduce any cultivation effect of that content. The reverse hypothesis of the cultivation effect is also plausible: persons who carry a mean world view may actively seek more violent media content--television's mean world messages merely confirm an idea or belief that is held by its viewers.

Those who watch soap operas and evening TV may not come into the television viewing situation with a perception of the world as mean, whether that perception derives from television or some other source, and would therefore not demonstrate such a phenomenon as was found with the evening TV viewers, a reduction in the perception of violent content based on cognitive activity in the viewing situation. Similarly, soap opera viewers would not demonstrate this phenomenon during the viewing of daytime serials, which are not as likely to present the world as a mean place.

An important control that perhaps should have been entered into this model is public affairs TV use. Persons in this sample were quite high on this measure relative to the viewing of other content types and the amount of public affairs viewing could be strongly related to the perception of the world as a mean place, particularly among the evening-only viewers. And active evening-only viewers may be even more likely to be high on public affairs viewing than less active evening-only viewers, because activity could be the analytical type of viewing as mentioned earlier in this paper.

If television viewers' activity while watching different content types is important, as suggested in this study, a finer delineation of TV content types would be useful. Comparing prime time and daytime serials is a gross division of content types, perhaps even less valid than the conventional categorizing

into situation comedies, crime and adventure shows, public affairs shows, etc. But the results of this study point toward the need to study media effects in general, and cultivation effects in particular, as a result of the interaction of active viewing with the frequency of watching content, and relative to specific content types. It could be that viewing of certain types in the evening is accomplished similarly to the viewing of soap operas, while the viewing of other prime time content types is quite different. This would explain the similarity in the measurement models. If people attend to the characters and actions of live sporting events, care about the participants and talk about sports with others, this type of viewing may be more like soap opera viewing than it is like watching situation comedies or some other form. Also, many of the more recent prime time evening shows that are successful, such as Dallas, Lou Grant and Hill Street Blues, contain attributes that are quite similar to soap opera content, such as continuing plot and an emphasis on interpersonal conflict among characters. Grouping content types according to how people use them, how actively they view and other use variables like the gratifications they seek from the shows, would perhaps be a more effective way of testing the cultivation hypotheses.

FOOTNOTES

¹Significance in a goodness-of-fit model is relative to whether the measurement model fits, therefore higher probability levels, e.g., greater than .50, are desired. Significance is not according to the probability that the model differs significantly from what would be found by chance. Therefore, a smaller Chi-Square value and a larger probability level are both desired. Using larger samples is especially a problem in determining statistical significance.

²The Congeneric True Score measurement model in LISREL assumes that the indicators of the unmeasured theoretical construct being tested are equally reliable measures of that construct. It also assumes that no correlation exists between the error terms on each indicator.

³When the measurement model is combined with the structural model, the lambdas of reliability for the measurement indicators are constrained to be equal across groups, as they were found to be so similar. In addition, determining the groups of viewing different content types on the basis of frequency of viewing those content types places frequency of viewing TV content as an interactive independent variable in the structural model.

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Figure 1. Proposed Indicators for Active Viewing Constructs

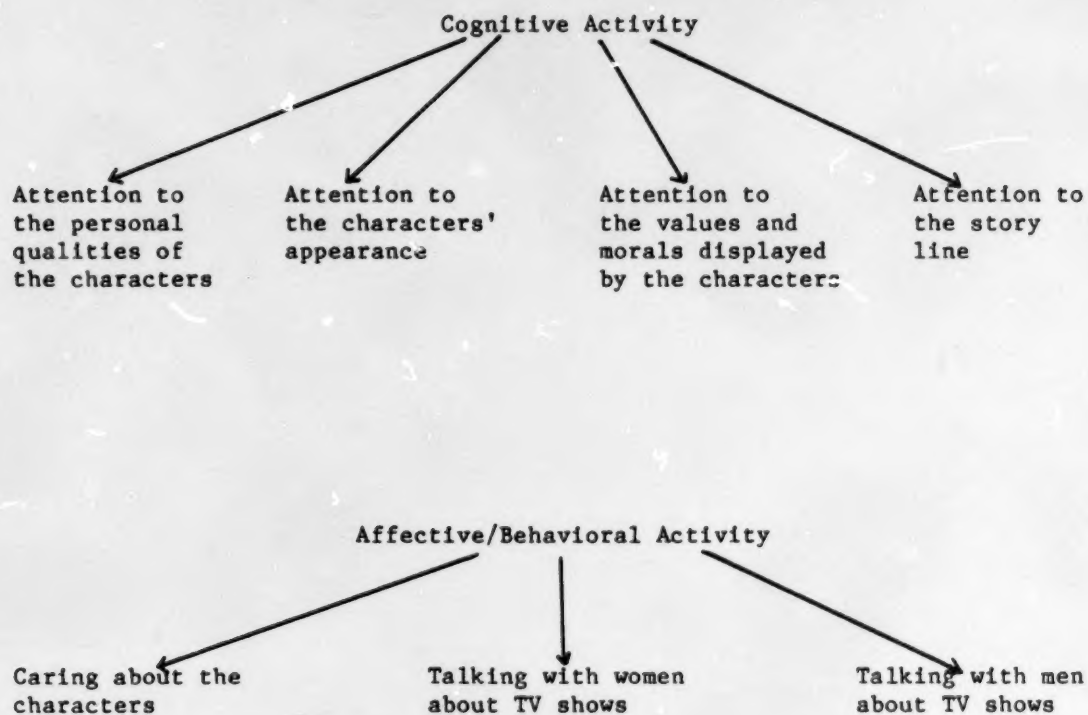
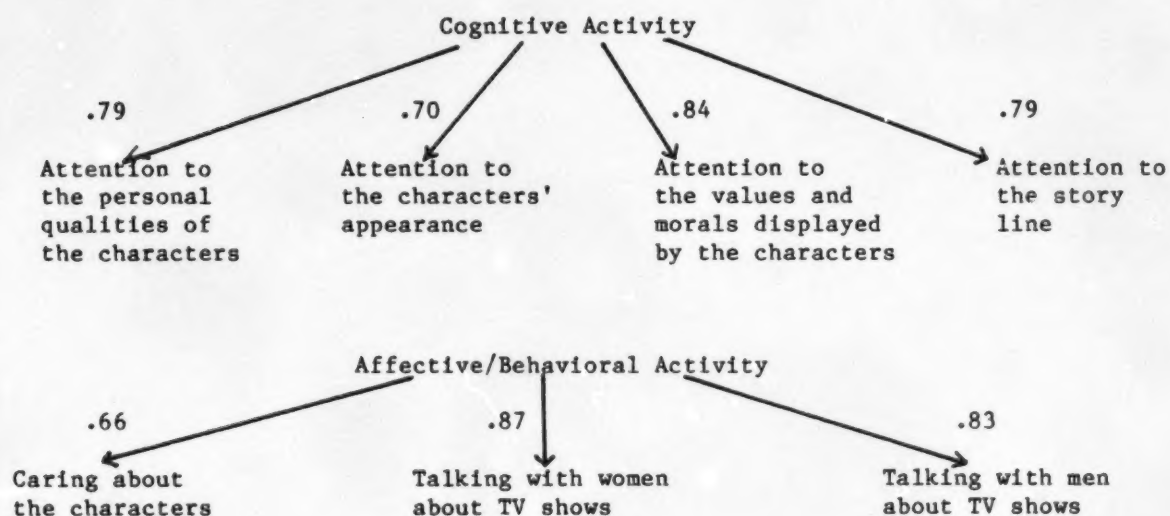


Figure 2. Measurement Model Results for Active Viewing Constructs

Entire Sample on Evening Viewing (standardized lambda coefficients)



Two-Group Sample on Evening Viewing (Standardized lambda coefficients) Key:
 Evening Only Viewers in box, Soap and Evening Viewers in circle.

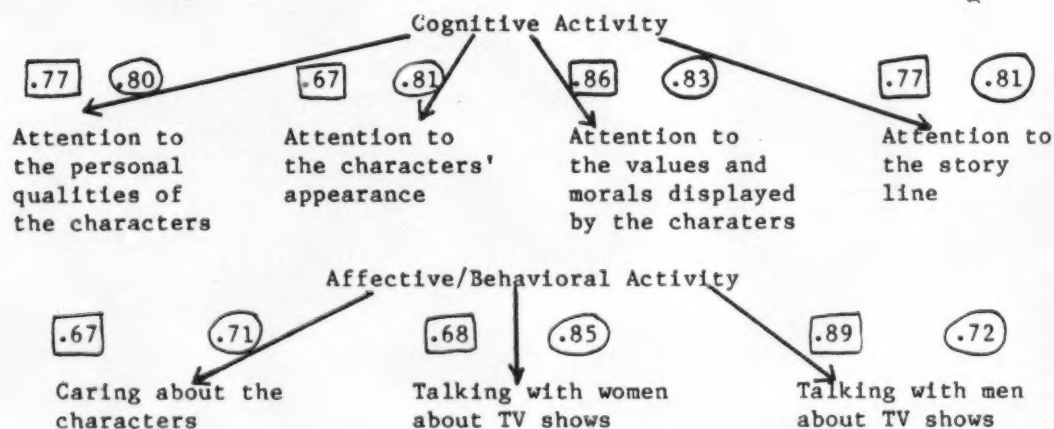


Figure 2. (continued) Measurement Models for Active Viewing Constructs

Soap and Evening Viewers on Soap Opera Viewing (Standardized lambda coefficients)

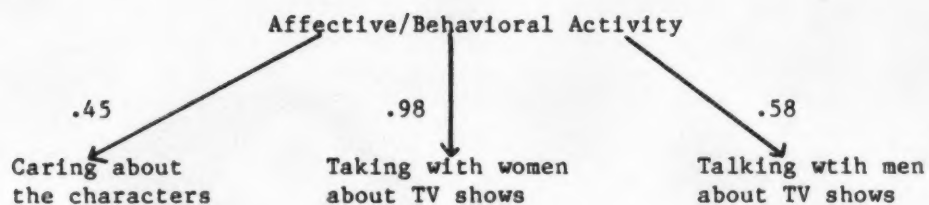
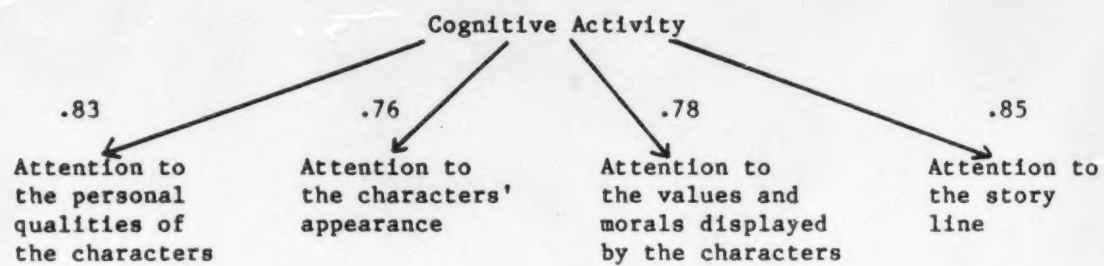


Figure 3. Structural Model to be Tested

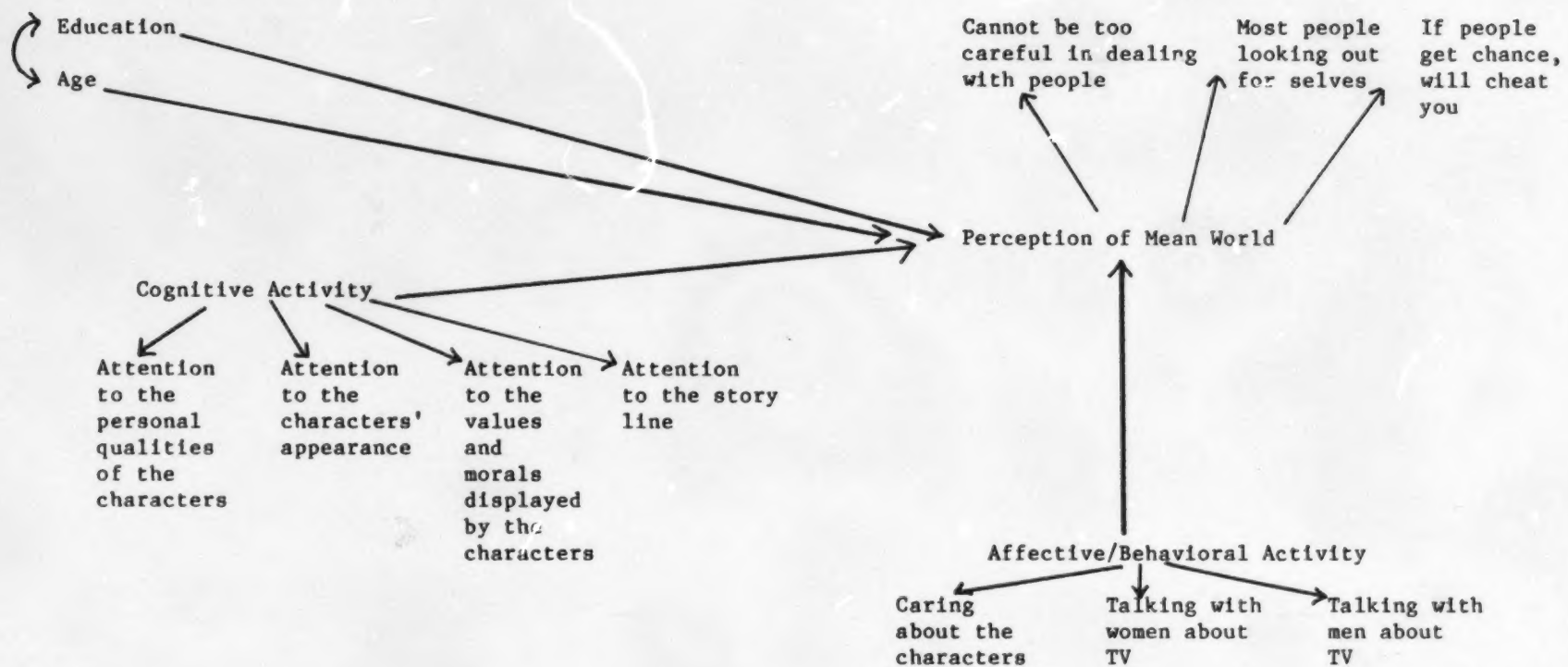


Figure 4. Structural Model After Testing, with Estimations (standardized gamma, beta, lambda coefficients, measurement error and residual)

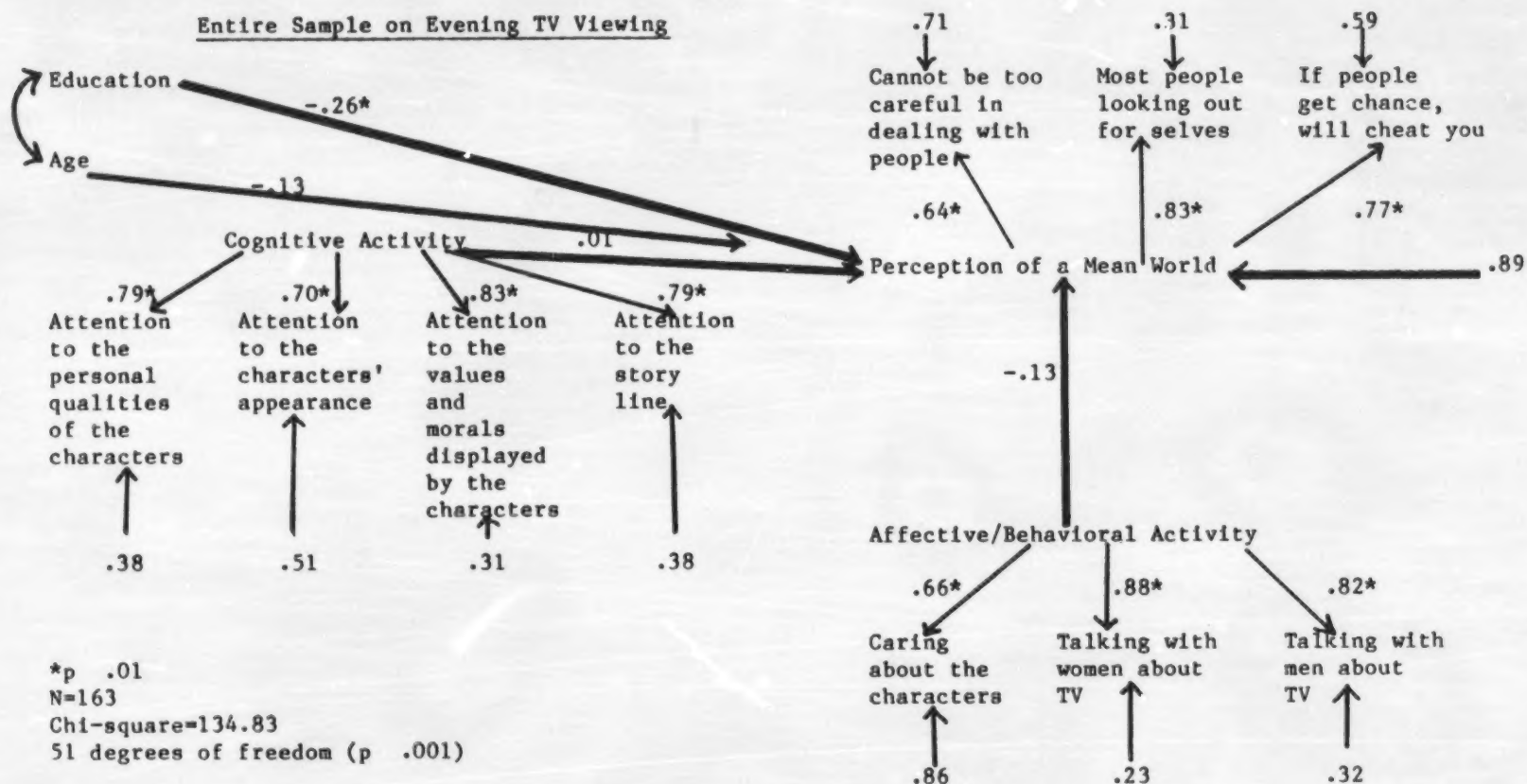
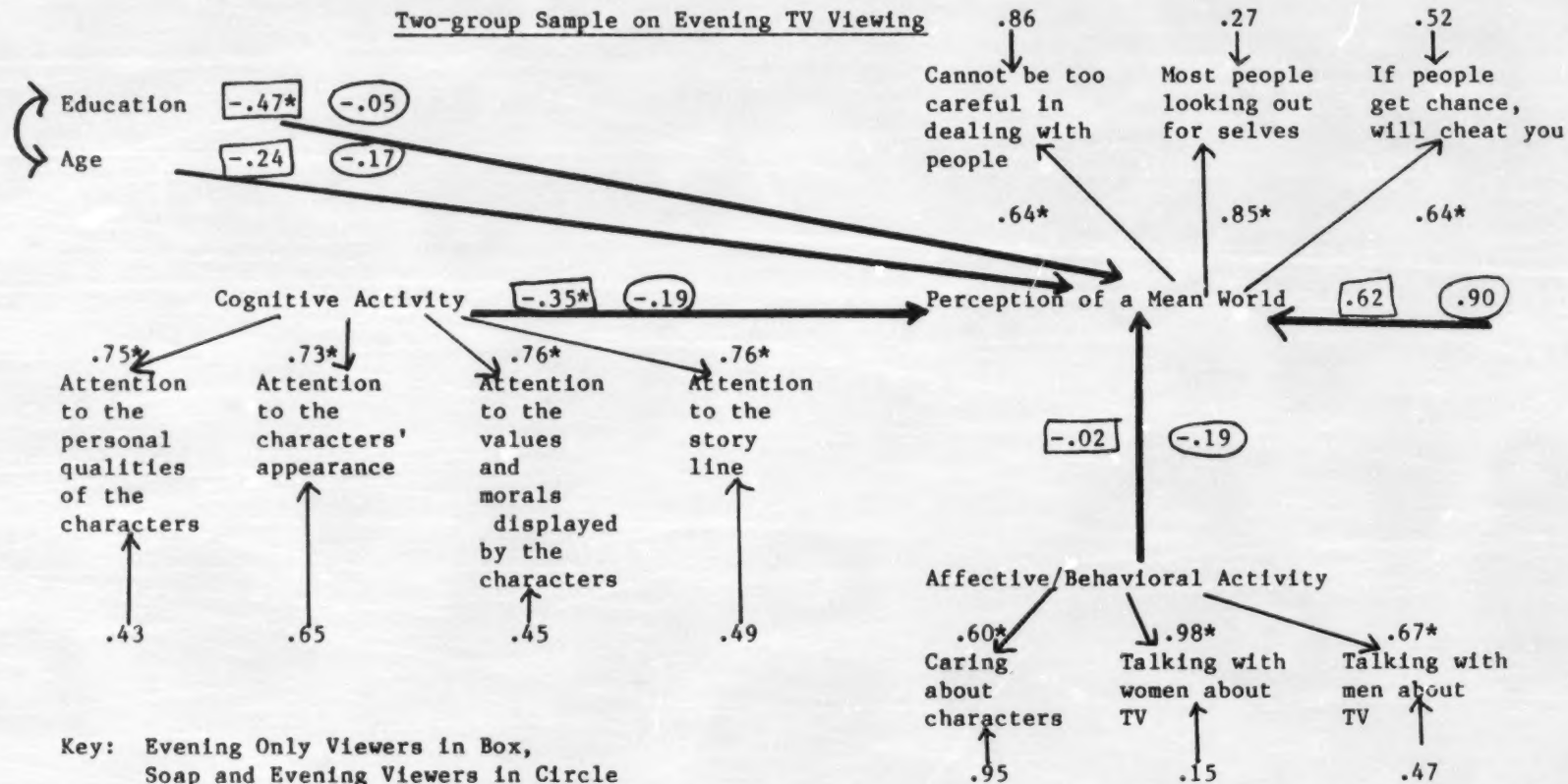


Figure 4. (continued) Structural Model After Testing, with Estimations (standardized gamma, beta, lambda coefficients, measurement error and residual)



*p .01

N=147 total Evening Only Viewers=64

Soap and Evening Viewers=83

Chi-square=153.09, 109 degrees of freedom (p .004)

Note: The lambda coefficients are held invariant across the two groups, as the measurements are assumed to be equally reliable.

Figure 4. (continued) Structural Model After Testing, with Estimations (standardized gamma, beta, lambda coefficients, measurement error and residual)

Soap and Evening Viewing Group on Soap Opera Viewing

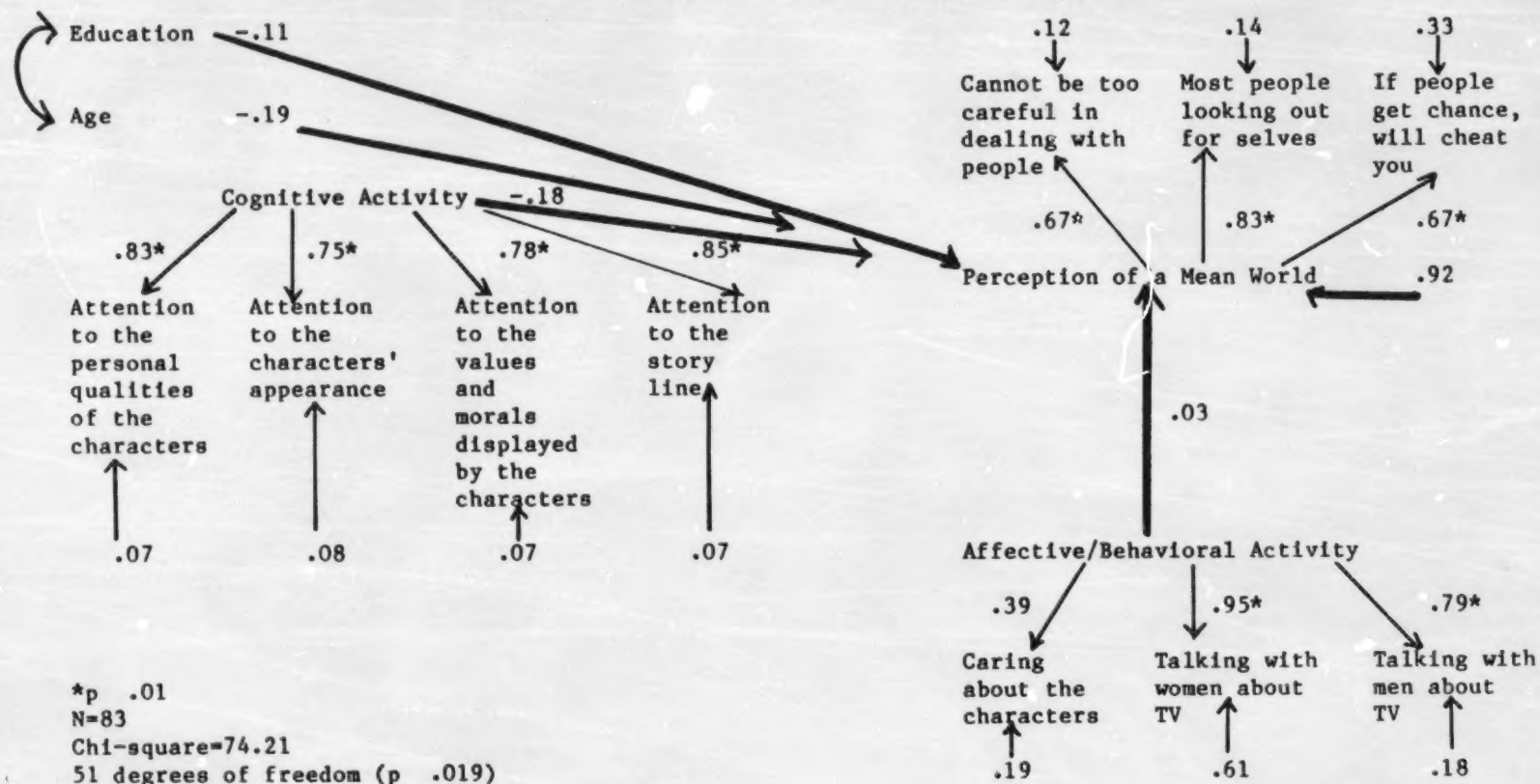


Table 1. Goodness of Fit Statistics for Measurement Models

	<u>Chi-Square Statistic</u>	<u>Degrees of Freedom</u>	<u>p value</u>
Entire Sample on Evening Viewing	67.31	13	.001
Two-Group Sample: Eve Only Viewers	45.06	13	.001
Soap and Eve Viewers	36.06	13	.006
Soap and Eve Viewers on Soap Viewing	30.11	13	.006

Table 2. Goodness of Fit Statistics for the Structural Model

	<u>Chi-Square Statistic</u>	<u>Degrees of Freedom</u>	<u>p value</u>
Entire Sample on Evening Viewing	134.83	51	.001
Two-Group Sample on Evening Viewing	153.09	109	.004
Soap-and-Evening Group on Soap Viewing	74.21	51	.019